

THE HANDICAPPED & EMPLOYABLE

Dane, Marcia

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AMERICAN FOUNDATION
FOR THE BLIND INC.



Blind workers at the Brooklyn Bureau of Social Service made many pillowcases for the armed forces

The Handicapped Are Employable

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MARCIA DANE, vocational counselor, Brooklyn Bureau of Social Service, reports hopeful lessons learned since Pearl Harbor.

During the first week in December 1941, between 9 and 10 each morning, 160 handicapped men and women reported to their jobs in the sheltered shops of the Brooklyn Bureau of Social Service. Of these workers 26 were blind and 134 were orthopedically crippled.

On December 7, 1941, Pearl Harbor was bombed. In the months that followed, industrial America was at least partially shaken out of its belief that because a person is physically handicapped he must be "sheltered." By March 1942, the increasing calls of industry and business for referral of handicapped workers, were bringing new challenges to the supervisors and the vocational counselor of the department for the blind and crippled. The manager of the Bureau Mailing Service (BMS), where two thirds of our clients were employed as addressers, inserters, typists, and mimeograph, multigraph and photo offset trainees, had been worried by the rising proportion of those who were then considered permanently sheltered shop employees. The BMS, like the toy and glove shop of the Bureau industries, offered training in both machine and

hand sewing and knitting machine operation, had given preference in the old days of long waiting lists to workers who seemed to have the best chance, after training in our shops, of holding jobs in industry. Within a month of Pearl Harbor, the waiting lists were gone. As soon as medical clearance was obtained, every applicant physically able and willing to try the work offered was holding down a "regular" job. And this at a time when workers who we believed could never compete under normal conditions had risen from approximately 20 percent to nearly 50 percent.

Productivity Proved

A friendly argument on this point led to the listing by the manager and vocational counselor of all such employes, a total of 36 out of a payroll of 82 at that time. Quite by accident in the summer of 1944 we found this old list; 20 of the 36 for whom we had had no hope before Pearl Harbor, at that moment were known to be holding regular jobs with good wages in offices and factories. Had a similar list been made for the toy shop and the sewing room employing

blind women as power machine operators, we are sure the comparison would have been even more startling. Blind women have proved productive and adaptable beyond our highest prewar expectations. But this is ahead of our story.

On V-E Day, in May 1945, three and one half years after Pearl Harbor, only 24 of the original 160 workers—9 blind and 15 crippled—were still employed in the Bureau's shops. Of the other 136 handicapped men and women, two thirds are known to have obtained and held jobs in regular industry. In all, 405 persons have been served by the Bureau's sheltered workshops during the war emergency; 72, or only 18 percent of these 405 (two thirds of them newcomers to the Bureau within the past year) are now employed in the shops; 28 percent left because of illness, marriage, dissatisfaction, moving from the area, or similar causes. The remaining 54 percent left the Bureau shops to take specific jobs in industry and business. It is with this 54 percent that we are here concerned.

Before considering these placements in more detail, it is worthwhile to note certain developments within the workshops

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control group. There was about 7 per cent less absence among the project children after being rehoused, and also about 7 percent less than among the children of the control group.

Thirty-one percent of the project children and 32 percent of the children living outside of the project in the school studied had mothers working outside the home.

The interviews with a sample of 5.5 percent of the families living in the three projects investigated brought out these additional facts:

69 percent of the mothers said that their school children showed improvement since living in the project.

99 percent found their children easier to keep clean.

100 percent stated that their children had better play facilities.

56 percent found that the housekeeping took less time.

77 percent stated that their families were now happier.

100 percent had had no fires or serious home accidents.

68 percent were able to save money or purchase necessities and equipment for their homes because of the lower rent.

Of the sixteen families interviewed who had made application and were waiting for apartments, it was found that:

56 percent of the mothers with school children felt that their children's school work would improve with better housing.

92 percent said that their present dwellings adversely affected their children's health.

85 percent found their children difficult to keep clean with the facilities they had.

100 percent said that their children had no play facilities.

31 percent of the families had had serious accidents in their homes.

Evidence of the beneficial effects of public housing on the health, safety, and happiness of the rehoused families is clear. Behind the statistics is a tremendous saving in dollars and cents to the community

in addition to the great diminution of human suffering and unhappiness. It is estimated, for example, that a saving of \$65,000 was achieved by the reduction in tuberculosis cases for one year which resulted from the rehousing of families living in substandard houses.

In addition to benefits which can be translated roughly into dollars and cents, are the intangible benefits from public housing. Families who have moved from slums are zealous in caring for their new homes. In these projects, light, air and ventilation are no longer denied them, for these are standard in homes designed for healthy living. From this improvement in environment and living conditions, better and healthier citizens, more efficient workers, greater community cooperation, and a more wholesome family life result.

Though it is not possible to put a price on all of these benefits, they add immeasurably to a community's welfare and, in the long run, it cannot be doubted, to its wealth.

Dollar Value of Social Benefits of Public Housing¹

	Number of cases among the families in Public Housing	Total cost	Estimated number of cases had these rehoused families still been living in substandard housing ²	Total cost	Savings resulting from rehousing these families
Tuberculosis					
\$5,000 is the estimated total cost of an average case of tuberculosis. (Source: Essex County Tuberculosis League.)	8	\$40,000	21	\$105,000	\$65,000
Infant Mortality					
\$9,000 is estimated as the capital value of a boy at birth, and \$4,000 the value of a girl. (Source: "Health and Wealth," Louis I. Dublin, Metropolitan Life Insurance Co.) To take account of the higher infant mortality rate among boys, \$7,240 is used as the average value.	3	21,720	9	57,920	36,200
Communicable Diseases					
\$50 is the estimated cost of a case for medical care, public health work, serious complications resulting from the illness, and absences from school.	294	14,700	738	36,900	22,200
Fatal Home Accidents					
\$4,500 is the estimated cost per case, including the loss in production and earning capacity. (Source: National Safety Council.)	0	0	2	9,000	9,000
Fires					
\$600 is the average cost per fire run. This was determined by dividing the budget of the Fire Department by the average number of fires per year.	7	4,200	23	13,800	9,600
\$300 is the average loss resulting from residential fires in the city, and \$13 is the average loss resulting from fires in the housing projects.	7	91	23	6,900	6,809
		\$80,711		\$229,520	\$148,809

¹ These figures are based on all of the families in Newark's low-rent housing projects, and not only those in the three projects discussed in the preceding pages.

² The number of cases there would have been among the rehoused families were they still living in substandard housing was determined by using the rates found among families in similar circumstances who still live in substandard dwellings. These rates were obtained from the study "The Social Effects of Public Housing."

By May 1943 we had only two thirds as many workers employed in the shops as we had had in 1941. Before the war at least one third of these would have been rejected for shop jobs because at that time it seemed to us that their handicaps were too great for successful production, even under sheltered conditions. These included many spastics, victims of encephalitis, and certain serious hand disabilities. During the following year the numbers of suitable applicants even under our greatly relaxed requirements, dropped to nearly one quarter of the prewar level.

Workshop Changes

While production obviously had to be somewhat curtailed, we felt we must hold our markets as we foresaw the need for rehabilitation centers, such as ours, for the wounded veteran as well as civilians handicapped by increasing industrial accidents. The rise of known cases of tuberculosis and cardiac conditions resulting from pre-induction medical examinations, emphasized the need for shops offering opportunities for the proper building up of physical resistance to the demands of normal industry, generally known as "work tolerance."

Out of the interaction of these factors, the director of the department, M. Roberta Townsend, and her staff, with the support of Frederick I. Daniels, executive director of the Bureau, became convinced that the lessons learned and still being learned from our experience with the blind and orthopedically crippled, were significant also in the rehabilitating of other handicapped persons. We felt that the inclusion of these other disabilities in our program would not only strengthen our production but would make a more normal social situation in the shops. Moreover, the trend in government welfare agencies toward the grouping of all physically handicapped under one broad policy, seemed to bear out our convictions that the inclusion of all physical handicaps would broaden our thinking and increase the effectiveness of our work in a private agency as it has done in the field of public welfare.

In the fall of 1943 we entered upon a cooperative experiment with the Brooklyn Tuberculosis and Health Association, another department within the Bureau, accepting arrested tubercular clients in order to build up their work tolerance in our shops. Workers were accepted for as little as two hours a day, and allowed to increase their work time at the discretion of the Tuberculosis Association.

The experiment succeeded so well that during the year 1944 to 1945, working relations have been established with the American Heart Association and other

organizations serving handicapped people, upon whose recommendations we now offer work opportunities to cardiacs, hearing and speech defectives, and workers suffering from neurological complaints and mental disturbances. These newcomers now constitute 30 percent of the present shop population. In April 1945 the exact percentages were 35 orthopedically crippled, 35 blind, 12 neurological, 10 arrested tuberculosis, 3 percent glandular and similar disabilities, 3 percent hearing and speech difficulties and 2 percent cardiacs. Actually the comparative numbers of eligible orthopedic applicants remained about the same as in 1943-44, while the blind increased about 10 percent.

Let us now turn to the more specific study of the 54 percent of our total shop workers who went into business and industry. In a survey begun in January 1945 an attempt was made to get in touch with the 176 former workers definitely known to have been employed after leaving the Bureau's shops. Of this group some information is available for 63 percent, the basis for the following analysis.

Survey Details

Of the 176 workers, approximately two thirds were employed in the BMS on clerical work and one third in the industrial division known as BBCI. Of the workers in the BMS, 70 percent obtained their jobs in clerical fields closely

allied to the work which they had been doing here. Twenty-four percent went into industry connected with production of war materials, and 6 percent went into occupations unrelated to war. Of the workers trained in the BBC industries all but one went into industrial work. Thirty-seven percent are employed in the needle trades in which they had some experience in the Bureau shop. Twenty-nine percent were employed in industrial assembling or packing. It will thus be seen that more than half of these handicapped placements use training received in the sheltered shops.

Of the total known placements, 27 jobs were filled by blind workers. Before the war we were lucky if we placed two blind workers a year in normal industry. Until 1943 the U. S. Employment Service refused to receive applications from blind persons even in their special handicapped division.

Only one of our 27 blind workers returned to our shops after what seemed a satisfactory placement. This worker was the first from our shops to secure her initial position without help from any agency, which was in itself a notable accomplishment both for the employer and the worker. She worked in this job for more than six months, was reemployed on trial in our shops and is now back in industry, the second placement having been made by the federal employment service. Eight more blind workers have



Ravitz photo

This employer knows two crutches need not impair secretarial excellence

how been placed for us through USES. Later four other workers in our shops secured outside employment on their own initiative.

Of these 27 jobs, 25 are in factories, one on a dictaphone, and one in a semi-clerical position. The blind workers average 48 hours per week, the range being 36 to 58 hours. They earn from 45 to 85 cents an hour, the average being 65 cents. Nearly all are paid on an hourly basis.

A larger number of the crippled workers obtained their own jobs. In the clerical field, referrals were often made by the vocational counselor upon request of industry. In these instances, workers were given such details as were available concerning hours and wages. The prospective employer was told about the applicant's handicap, but the applicant was entirely on his own in clinching the job. Other crippled clerical workers obtained their opportunity by taking civil service examinations. It is estimated that about 70 percent of the clerical workers landed their jobs in one of these ways. A few were placed directly with companies for which the Bureau Mailing Service had done work similar to that to which the applicant was referred. A few others obtained work through the USES. Workers seeking industrial placement found the USES more helpful, although again many obtained their own jobs through personal application at factories.

Of the crippled workers, 20 are known to have held two or more unrelated jobs since leaving the Bureau. All of the rest about whom we have specific information, have held either one job or related jobs, generally within the same company, and sometimes shifting from one government agency to another similar government agency under civil service. Crippled workers in the clerical field averaged 44 hours a week with a range from 36 to 48. Industrial workers average 48 hours, ranging from 40 to 54. Salaries converted into weekly amounts for purposes of comparison show an average of \$28 per week in the clerical field, ranging from \$18 to \$35; and \$20 to \$22 as an average in the industrial field, ranging from \$16 to \$36. One worker, a case of arrested tuberculosis, working in the industrial division at piece rates, makes between \$50 and \$65 a week.

Workers' Evaluation

So much for the statistics on placement of our workers. Forty-one of those we reached gave further information on two counts: first, they attempted to evaluate for us their experience in our workshops; second, they outlined the primary difficulties they met in going into industry

and business, and gave suggestions which they thought might be helpful in counseling not only returning veterans but also their families and friends.

The difficulties felt to be most common by the blind workers were, in the order of their importance: persuading sighted people that they are normal individuals; learning to adjust to many strange people at once; obtaining advancement comparable to sighted fellow workers.

Under the first heading the blind workers felt not only that fellow workers look upon them as peculiar people, but that foremen are sometimes unwilling to allow the blind worker to try to do things for himself. Their plea was that blind workers should be made as self-sufficient as possible before leaving a sheltered environment, and urged to do all that normal people do. If an agency is helping make the placement, the new employer should be persuaded to allow the blind person to act as a normal person. One particularly annoying habit of sighted people is a tendency to talk as if the blind person were unable to think or answer for herself.

Distinguishing Voices

The blind person must learn to distinguish foreman and fellow workers by their voices alone, and when this has to be done in the noise of a factory it is very confusing for the first several weeks. However, once the blind person has learned the voices of most of his fellow workers and his foreman, the ordinary shift in labor turnover does not bother him. A little consideration by the foreman the first two weeks is a great help.

In the matter of obtaining advancement, it is difficult to estimate whether employers are taking advantage of the handicap or whether the lack of vision really does prevent increase of production comparable to that of the sighted worker in the same department.

The difficulties encountered by the crippled group are in the order of their importance: traveling, interviewing for a job, learning to accept the "silly" questions of normal people, persuading bosses to allow the worker to adapt methods of operation to the handicap, and obtaining advancement.

Subway crowds during rush hours and street cars with high steps are a real hurdle for those with a severe leg disability as well as for some cardiacs.

One of the more annoying situations which occurred in several job interviews, was the inability of the employer to face the handicap honestly. In one instance, an interviewer having no real reason for not employing a two-crutch clerical worker, finally gave the lame excuse that

it was necessary for his workers to carry their typewriters from desk to desk. Since this worker cannot move without holding both crutches, she was barred from working in his office. She felt that she would have preferred to have him say frankly that he did not want a worker with two crutches. Crippled workers in general ask only a chance to try the job. This is especially true of those who use crutches but who are accustomed to them. It may take them a little longer to go from the desk to their employer's office to take dictation, but they feel the employer should accept this without concern, provided they are able to take the dictation and finish the work on time.

Complaints in the crippled group about obtaining advancement came from industrial workers and were similar to those of the blind.

Another industrial problem mentioned, especially by workers with hand disabilities, was that of adapting methods of operation. A man with one arm learns to use his good arm and hand to do the work of both. He must obviously adjust the method of doing any job to his one-handedness. In several instances foremen insisted that their work could not be done by the method devised. It was only after a great deal of arguing that one foreman allowed the worker to demonstrate his own way of performing the operation, but a single demonstration proved the worker's point.

In this instance as in that of the blind worker distinguishing voices, and the clerical worker moving slowly on crutches, the attitude of the employer and foreman may be all-important in a satisfactory placement. If the worker is well adjusted to his disability, a wise employer will accept whatever method of work the employee chooses, so long as the work is well done, within the normal time, and at no inconvenience to fellow employees or extra cost to the company. Placement agents can do much to help both the employer and employee by suggesting this attitude toward handicaps to the personnel manager and foreman.

Returning Servicemen

In considering the returning blind or crippled veteran, nearly every worker felt that the greatest need is for education of the public in treating a handicapped person as a normal human being. Without exception these workers feel that the handicapped man must not be babied. He should not be urged to attempt things which are physically impossible for him to do, but everything which he can do should be required of him.

It was held important that the handicapped veteran be expected to observe the conventions and emotional restraints

expected of normal people. To make allowances for rude or childish behavior simply on the basis of the *fact* of the handicap was considered a great mistake. Furthermore, it was felt that the public should be instructed not to ask questions concerning the disability and its cause. If a disabled person wishes to volunteer information he should be encouraged to do so, but he should not be pestered with questions unless he shows a desire to talk.

Public Understanding

Various methods were suggested for helping the public to understand these and other problems which the returning veteran will face—newspaper articles, including a daily column on the treatment of handicapped persons, radio skits, and movies. One blind girl suggested that a topnotch movie could be devised with a blind person as a prominent character. In the course of the story, the producer should make every effort to show that his blind hero or heroine is able to dress, eat, work and play with a minimum of assistance. A crippled worker suggested that a clever advertiser or cartoonist might devise subway and bus posters similar to the "Design for Living" scenes, showing the wrong way to approach the handicapped person and the right way, at street crossings, in restaurants, and so on.

Another worker felt that special classes in the schools, while necessary for the mentally backward child, are really harmful to the mentally normal but physically handicapped. This young lady believes that association in normal classes is of value not only to the handicapped but perhaps has even more value for the normal child in growth of understanding.

It was also suggested that some agency ought to set up a home visiting service, to help families of hospitalized veterans prepare for the return of the injured.

Self-Confidence, Greatest Asset

Finally, in evaluating their experience in the Bureau, both the blind and crippled workers felt that the greatest contribution of the workshops to ultimate vocational adjustment was the development of self-confidence. Approximately half of the workers giving us information said that specific skills developed in the Bureau had not contributed directly toward placement, but that they had learned much in the way of work habits and attitudes, which made their new jobs easier.

These workers urged that all sheltered shops should be as strict as outside industry about attendance, punctuality, and production schedules. They conceded that adjustment of hours is often needed by the crippled person just beginning to work, but that whatever time is decided upon should be strictly adhered to; similarly that the production required of each handicapped worker must be geared to his ability, but once his capacity is fairly gauged, the worker be held to that output each day or week.

In discussing the contribution of the sheltered shops to their final successful placement, more than 50 percent mentioned the opportunity which the Bureau gave them to learn to work with others, the opportunity to start working a few hours a day and gradually reach a full working day, and the encouragement of shop supervisors. They appreciated the guidance of staff members in helping them get used to the shop, and in pre-

paring them for the problems and disappointments of an outside job.

Above all, in one way or another, these handicapped workers indicated what one thirty-year-old man expressed directly. "Until I came to the Bureau I did not believe that any agency or any individual could help me. At the Bureau I saw people much worse than I, doing real work, actually earning money and making friends. The Bureau shops offered me the first bit of encouragement I had had to believe that I could take a man's place and carry my weight in the world. Even before it gave me an opportunity to prove myself, the Bureau gave me hope."

That young man and the 176 like him, especially the twenty successful workers whom we had originally considered unemployable in normal industry, in their turn have given to other handicapped associates hope and inspiration. They have done more. Their success in wartime was a challenge both to social workers and to industrial and business management.

To management comes their challenge to give handicapped workers in peace, even more than in war, a fair trial in doing required work by methods suited to the worker, provided his production equals that of normal workers without extra expense to the company.

To rehabilitation and sheltered shop bureaus comes the challenge to provide for *even the most seriously handicapped*, realistic work experiences of an ever widening variety, that a day may come when the hope of every handicapped man and woman will be fulfilled by a practical opportunity to prove themselves able to "take their places and carry their weight in the world."

Community Evolution

CHESTER D. SNELL, USO regional executive, tells how one North Carolina area is trying to preserve wartime organization gains.

If you take a highway map of North Carolina you can locate Farmville in the east central section, and you will note that it is almost at the center of a square composed of main highways passing through Rocky Mount, Wilson, Goldsboro, Kinston, New Bern, Washington, and Tarboro.

On January 27, 1944, the Eastern North Carolina USO Area Council was organized at a meeting held in Farmville, with representatives from those communities and from Greenville and Smithfield, a little farther away, making a total of ten. Each community had been asked to

send five representatives; the USO council or committee chairman, USO club director or paid worker or senior hostess, city recreation head or city manager or mayor, United War Fund drive chairman, and one other civic leader. Representatives of a number of interested state, regional, national and private agencies, and the military and government also were present, took part in the discussions as resource people, and brought the total in attendance to sixty.

Out of that and subsequent meetings has come a proposal by which fourteen communities would put on a campaign

for local agencies and services; plan together to meet their social, health and recreational needs; employ a full time experienced community organization executive.

The USO regional executive, acting as chairman, opened proceedings by saying that this was the first Area USO meeting held in the United States with an agenda including discussion of "ways for communities to inherit and utilize certain volunteer program and fund raising leadership and physical facilities for after-the-war community recreation and social purposes." The discussion method of the

town meeting was used for this and subsequent gatherings, and there were no formal speeches. Local leaders presented information, asked questions, made suggestions. A review of the reports of the meetings shows that nearly all new ideas and plans came from the lay readers.

Needed Facilities

During the latter half of that first meeting, discussion centered about present and needed recreation facilities. It was discovered that five of the communities had been talking about the need for recreation buildings. Before USO's entry only one community had such a building and there were only three professional recreation workers in the entire area, where the populations of the several towns ranged from two to twenty-six thousand. Five communities had chest organizations but there were no full time chest executives. There was not a council of social agencies in the area.

Eight of the communities recorded the amounts they had raised during the 1943 War Fund campaign for local and national purposes. The total amount for local private agency work was \$93,400, or only 82 cents per capita, far below the national average. But for the National War Fund an additional \$154,125 was raised, bringing the total sum for the eight communities to \$247,525, or \$2.20 per capita. With this demonstration that large amounts *could* be raised—at least in a time of full employment and high agriculture prices—the discussion concentrated on how much of this war-stimulated giving might be carried over into the postwar period and devoted to local welfare services.

The assumption was made that it would require a base of at least the \$93,400 raised for local purposes in these communities to justify expenditure of funds for one professional community organization executive. A lay leader pointed out that there were already many instances of cooperation, such as district civic club meetings, and the Area Boy Scout executive, and a desire for more. Finally a representative suggested that several of the communities jointly employ an executive.

At the second meeting in April, 1944, the council devoted the session to long-range planning. The three assets developed by USO that might be utilized for after-the-war recreation and social purposes were reviewed: USO volunteer workers; the leadership, spirit and the volume of contributions to USO and the National War Fund; USO buildings.

A list of the privately supported local services was prepared which could be developed in the postwar period by each community desiring to carry out a com-

prehensive plan. This list included Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, 4-H Clubs, Children's Aid Society, Family Service Society, the national organizations that are USO member agencies, YMCA, YWCA, Salvation Army, YM-YWHA, Travelers Aid, Catholic Charities, community recreation buildings, councils of social agencies, and community chests.

The need of small cities for the advice of an expert in community welfare planning was emphasized, and it was agreed that such assistance could best be secured if several communities would jointly employ and use an experienced executive. A motion was carried requesting the USO regional executive to select one person from each interested community and county to meet and outline a plan of cooperation.

By now the council had been augmented by four more communities, making a total membership of fourteen. For the fourth meeting held in April 1945, a recommendation had been prepared as a discussion topic—"Shall this Area USO Council be reorganized as an Association of Eastern North Carolina Community (and County) Councils?"

Future Possibilities

A full discussion of both area and community organization possibilities developed, and at the close the following motion was unanimously passed: "That the delegates, upon return to their respective communities, call a meeting of representative leaders to consider the organization of local community or county councils and select representatives to attend an area meeting at a later date to discuss the formation of a new area organization." This later date has now been set for November 8, 1945. The United War Fund of North Carolina has made the services of its community organization consultant available for assistance and advice to the association until it is prepared to employ its own executive.

Suggestions as to area association possibilities which may be acted upon in November include services to be provided, among them:

Skilled leadership in fund raising;

Encouragement and leadership of community councils devoted to planning for health, recreation, welfare, and so on;

Organizing and supervising cooperative enterprises of two or more communities in such special undertakings as a child guidance clinic;

Organization and direction of area conferences on welfare, health, and so on;

Organization of area athletic leagues, traveling art exhibits and the like;

Booking and scheduling speakers, entertainments, music;

Investigations and recommendations to fund raising by various organizations.

Joint approaches to the legislature matters in social fields;

Securing advice from state, federal, and private agency sources on problems of current concern to the area.

It was further suggested that an Association could employ, or make arrangements for two or more communities to cooperate in employing professional workers—an expert in fund raising; a consultant on developing community chests, councils of social agencies and general community councils; a recreation specialist; caseworkers; training executives for Girl Scouts, YM-YWCA and so on.

To Point the Way

This plan as it has grown towards the possibility of professional leadership on an area basis, may point the way for hundreds of small communities where a million war-work volunteers have acquired a genuine interest in social welfare. There are several ways to accomplish this purpose—the creation of permanent service chest organizations out of state war fund groups, for instance, or the reorganization of the National War Fund on a peacetime basis to provide field service in rural places. But it is the opinion of many that the *area* plan, providing leadership close to the points of need, is essential.

Planning for welfare has a broad meaning for us now than ever before—for today we assume it means planning for all phases of community life. Because there is so great interdependence between the major aspects of community living and since each one presents a technical problem of its own, it follows that total community planning is a large and intricate task. But its intricacies need not be daunting when the will for the plan arises with its need from an informed and cooperative citizen's group.

A better community is not created overnight. It develops slowly. Wartime adjustments which carry over will do so by evolution. Thoughtful plans to aid this evolutionary process have been launched by many community leaders, and this illustration from North Carolina may suggest what can be accomplished within the framework of an area's own awareness of its needs and ability to act. Certainly the organization of good community service is vital to a postwar situation conducive to lasting peace. The time to plan is now. When the war-related activities have been suspended may be too late.

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AUTHOR DANE, MARCIA

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